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ABSTRACT

The paper is designed to aid social studies educators and teachers in selecting curriculum materials. It is presented in three sections. Section I outlines problems involved in choosing among curricula. These problems include similarity of traditional social studies textbooks; recent proliferation of innovative curricula which have not been systematically evaluated; and absence of comprehensive criteria for comparing curriculum proposals. Section II summarizes the views of several educators and social scientists who suggest that responsible citizenship is the primary goal of social studies instruction. The paper develops a scheme for classifying four teaching approaches to social studies instruction: social science knowledge (facts and generalizations), ways of social science thinking (modes of inquiry), procedures for making rational value judgments, and value judgments of a reference group. Section III identifies 12 national values education curriculum projects and explains how they can be classified according to the scheme. For each project, the following information is given: approach, purpose, methods, materials, and development. (Author/JK)

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AN APPROACH TO SELECTING AMONG SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULA

Revised Edition

Alan Tom

revised by

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February, 1977

SO 010 439

Introduction: AN ANALYSIS OF CURRENT SOCIAL STUDIES CURRICULA

A striking characteristic of social studies textbooks is their similarity to one another. Tables of contents are practically interchangeable. Recently, however, a number of new curricula, significantly different from established texts, have been developed. Whether the new curricula are superior to standard texts is in dispute, partly because comprehensive criteria for comparing curriculum proposals have not yet been developed. The first section outlines the problems involved in choosing among curricula.

The second section develops a scheme for distinguishing among social studies positions. Although all curricula have the ultimate aim of promoting responsible citizenship, there are at least four different routes to this goal. The scheme for categorizing social studies positions differs both from traditional distinctions made in social studies literature and from Bloom's taxonomies of cognitive and affective objectives. The connections between the new scheme and social studies literature are explored, but the taxonomies are not discussed because they are based on distinctions that differ from those historically made in social studies education.

The last part relates a number of the national curriculum projects to the scheme. Type of content is used as a basis for classification of curricula. The four types of content are: procedures for making rational value judgments, value judgments of a reference group, ways of social science thinking, and social science knowledge.

I: COMPARING CURRICULUM PROPOSALS

"America," Alexis de Tocqueville noted, "is a land of wonders, in which everything is in constant motion and every change seems an improvement." Few would dispute that our society is a rapidly changing one. It is less certain that every change is an improvement.

Would the distant rumble of a supersonic jet strike you as the "sound" of progress? Certainly the development of a commercial supersonic airliner would speed the delivery of passengers from one side of the continent to the other. However, the increased noise level may be seen by some people to be too high a price to pay for quickening the pace of air travel. Whether one views the commercial supersonic jet as an improvement depends on what is given priority, speed or tranquility.

The problem of judging the value of innovations is not unique to aircraft development. Whether to develop a new defense weapon is a problem commonly faced by government officials and legislators. Legislators also evaluate bills related to poverty, health, and educational programs. It is on the last area, educational innovations, that this paper focuses. Specifically, the author is interested in social studies, though the issues raised in this paper probably are relevant to innovations in other suject areas.

Social studies educators and teachers have long disagreed about what should be the basic purpose of social studies education. This lack of agreement on a criterion makes evaluation of new products most difficult. Yet until recently few teachers have been concerned about the great variety of proposed purposes because new statements of position have not been accompanied by student materials.[1] In the absence of student materials these statements of position have had little significance for schools; they have been of interest primarily to social studies educators in universities.

Old Questions and New Realities. In the past, selecting curriculum materials has been a relatively simple task. The issue in the end has boiled down to the question: which text shall we use for a particular course? Although an occasional school district has developed materials on its own, most districts lack the human and financial resources necessary to create curriculum materials. As a result school districts tend to restrict their attention to published texts. Typically, once every five years, a committee is formed to survey the available texts in order to recommend one of them for adoption. Supplemental or enrichment materials may also be chosen, generally on the basis of their correlation with the selected text.

Textbook selection is like buying a car, not only in that both involve clearly defined choices, but in addition because textbooks, as well as cars, share a number of characteristics. The similarity of product is obvious in the case of cars but may not be so in relation to texts. Textbooks tend to contain masses of facts and generalizations, yet at the same time to include numerous topics. That is, texts tend to be encyclopedic. In addition, the emphasis of facts and generalizations indicates that texts focus on issues of description or explanation. Little attention is given to either ethical or public policy issues, both of which involve values as well as facts and generalizations. Ethical and public policy issues usually are a part of social studies instruction, but generally the teacher, rather than the textbook, introduces these issues. A final shared characteristic is that generalizations made by scholars are presented as if they were facts; rarely is the process examined by which scholars reached these tentative conclusions. Textbooks, therefore can be characterized as detailed accounts of a variety of topics in which the conclusions of scholars are summarized.[2]

But every teacher knows that textbooks do differ from one another. Moreover, the fact that teachers approach textbook selection with a set of questions indicates that teachers believe these differences can be systematically examined. The nature of the questions, however, suggests that the differences deal not so much with contrasting purposes for social studies instruction as they do with the different ways youngsters might respond to stylistic variations among tests.

The role of the questions can be seen by examining four of the more frequently asked questions:

1. Is the reading level appropriate to the students for whom the book is intended?
2. Is the text factually accurate and does it contain interpretations which are consistent with contemporary scholarship?
3. Is the text attractively illustrated?
4. Will the style of writing hold the interest of the students?

With the exception of number two, these questions involve stylistic concerns: reading level, illustrations, writing style. The illustrations and writing style questions help a teacher predict student interest in the materials while the reading level question helps a teacher estimate the ability of students to understand the materials. Although student response is a valid consideration in selecting materials, it does not take into account two basic issues: the purpose of social studies instruction and the selection of content to realize that purpose.

Even the question related to content (accuracy of facts and interpretations) is not particularly helpful in selecting content. The basic problem is that there is much more accurate content than there is time for social studies instruction. At best, the accuracy question eliminates some "false" content; this question does not aid in reducing to a manageable size the tremendous quantity

of "true" content. Moreover, the term content refers to more than facts and interpretations; skills, attitudes, values all are potential content for a social studies course.

II: ALTERNATIVE DIRECTIONS FOR SOCIAL STUDIES INSTRUCTION

Even though curriculum proposals made by educators and social scientists have not brought about a revolution in social studies instruction, these proposals have delineated alternative directions that social studies instruction may take in the future. One type of influence exerted by these proposals is on beginning teachers who, as a part of their teacher training, often read books or articles by curriculum theorists. The proposals also have had considerable impact on the materials developed by the national projects.

The purpose of this section is to examine the ideas of several representative educators and social scientists. To facilitate the comparison of varying positions, a scheme is developed for classifying similar approaches to social studies instruction.

A Scheme for Categorizing Social Studies Positions Two recent attempts to identify alternate directions for social studies instruction have resulted in the same basic division. The division is between those who view social studies as being primarily concerned with the development of good citizens and those who see the social studies as essentially the same as the social sciences.[3] This way of conceptualizing the alternatives is unfair to those who equate the social studies and the social sciences, for it implies that they are unconcerned with

citizenship education. The distinction is also unfair to the advocates of citizenship education, for it suggests they believe that one can become a good citizen without being knowledgeable in the social sciences.

Bernard Berelson has argued that the disagreement between proponents of citizenship education and those of social science knowledge is largely a spurious issue. Phrased differently, the apparent issue disappears:

> As a starter, suppose we were to say that we--all of us involved--want to give high school students the best introduction we can, within limits of practicality, to the best available knowledge from the social science disciplines as a means to the end of producing responsible citizens. That single sentence, which I think would be agreed to by many participants on all sides of the debate, may go a long way toward resolving the issue.[4]

His way of stating the issue does seem to resolve part of it: social science knowledge need not be considered an end in itself but rather as a means to the end of citizenship education.

But agreeing on the end, citizenship education, does not necessarily lead all educators to favor the same means. Berelson sees the means as being "the best available knowledge from the social science disciplines." Jerome Bruner, who shares Berelson's assumption that the social studies are essentially the same as the social sciences, is not so much interested in teaching youngsters social science facts and generalizations (Berelson's position) as he is in having youngsters engage in the same kind of intellectual activity as do practicing social scientists:

> The schoolboy learning physics is a physicist, and it is easier for him to learn physics behaving like a physicist than doing something else. The "something else" usually involves...classroom discussions and textbooks that talk about the conclusions in a field of inquiry rather than centering upon the inquiry itself.[5]

The last sentence places Bruner in direct opposition to the social scientists who contributed articles to the book introduced by Berelson. Those social scientists, as Berelson point out, directed their efforts to answering the question: What ought a high school graduate know about my field?[6] In other words, the emphasis is on conclusions, precisely the approach that is criticized by Bruner.

To summarize, Bruner and Berelson both want social studies to be closely related to the social sciences. While Berelson believes that students should learn particular conclusions from the various social sciences, Bruner argues that students should engage in the ways of thinking used by social scientists. Briefly stated, Berelson wants students to learn the products of research; Bruner wants students to employ the process of inquiry. Yet both of them make the same claim for their approaches; this claim is that their particular approach is the one that best produces understanding.[7]

The emphasis on understanding is logical because social scientists see the social sciences as producers of reliable konwledge and of techniques to insure this reliability. Several definitions of the social sciences are quoted to illustrate this point:

> It is a group of disciplines that provide descriptions of human nature, human activity, and human institutions. These disciplines are scientific, first in that they are concerned with telling us What Is, not What Ought To Be; and second, in that they exercise objectivity, pursue special knowledge, and move toward formulation of this knowledge.[8]

> In baldest terms, social scientists share a common concern in the development and use of methods for ordering data systematically and analytically, and for interpreting their findings as objectively as possible.[9]

> With what...are the social sciences concerned? They are concerned with the <u>actualities</u> of human societies in development, with <u>records</u> of past actualities, with <u>knowledge</u>, with <u>thought</u>, and with methods of <u>acquiring</u> knowledge respecting the actualities of human societies in development.[10]

Even in the case of public policy issues, a social scientist is more likely to see his role as a producer of reliable knowledge than as a direct participant in social action:

> Not only are solid facts to guide policy formulations woefully inadequate, but also misinformation to misguide policymakers often seems abundantly available. For example, who really knows whether public assistance undermines or strengthens individual initiative? Or whether or not Blue Cross, Blue Shield, or automobile insurance may not be undermining the insured person's sense of individual responsibility? To help supplant myth with fact and conjecture with knowledge is a contribution which researchers can make.[11]

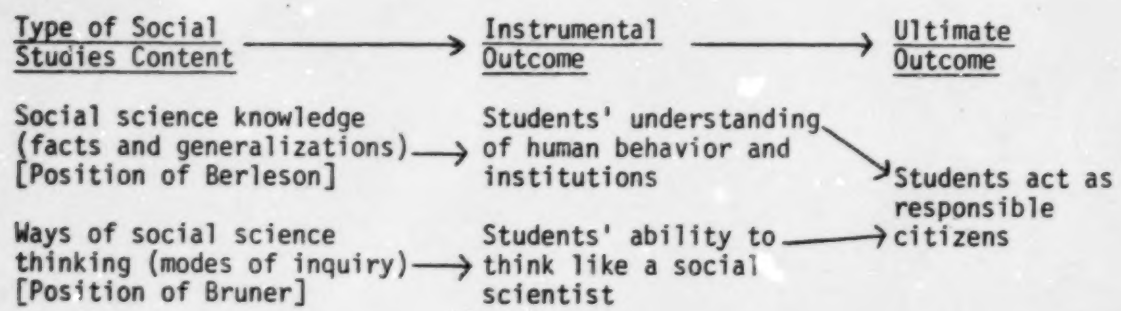
Since social scientists see the social sciences as a major source of reliable knowledge concerning human activities and institutions, it is natural for them to conclude that studying the social sciences leads to understanding. In turn, understanding of human activities and institutions is associated, often implicitly, with responsible citizenship.[12]

Figure I represents the relationships between the social sciences and citizenship education for those who stress the central role of the social sciences in social studies education. The arrows indicate temporal movement, from what students study (the social sciences) to the instrumental outcome (student understanding of human behavior and institutions or ability to think like a social scientist) to the ultimate outcome (good citizenship on the part of the student).

Those who emphasize social science content and instrumental outcomes often have difficulty defining clearly what they mean by good or responsible citizenship. This problem often leads to a second one: a vague statement of the way in which either a student's increased understanding or his improved thinking skills would make him a better citizen. An ambiguous statement of the relationship between instrumental and final outcomes makes it difficult not only to evaluate the approaches proposed by Bruner and Berelson but also to compare either of these to other alternatives.

Figure I

The Social Sciences and
Citizenship Education


Type of Social Studies Content
Instrumental Outcome
Ultimate Outcome
Social science knowledge (facts and generalizations) [Position of Berleson]
Students' understanding of human behavior and institutions
Ways of social science thinking (modes of inquiry) [Position of Bruner]
Students' ability to think like a social scientist
Students act as responsible citizens

Many social studies educators do not share Bruner and Berelson's view that pursuit of understanding is an adequate preparation for reponsible citizenship. One such educator is Shirley Engle. Engle contends that decision making should be the core of social studies instruction.[13] Engle is concerned with two levels of decision: interpretation of data[14] (a version of understanding) and policy determination. Policy issues, Engle points out, involve values as well as interpretation of data:

> In dealing with the issue of which of two proposed solutions to the problems of farm surpluses is best, one may conclude, factually, that government support of farm prices leads inevitably to inefficiency in agriculture and to unnecessarily high cost for food and fiber which the farm produces. This much is a factual conclusion. But this does not necessarily get us out of the woods, for one might still prefer government supported agriculture to an unregulated agriculture because he feared the control of large agricultural corporations (which will almost inevitably follow the removal of government restrictions - another factual generalization) more than he fears government controls. The latter decision is a value judgment...[15]

Engle goes on to argue that if responsible decision making is the end of social studies instruction, then the study of values must be a central concern of social studies instruction.

It is precisely on the issue of values that many social scientists get disturbed. Philip Hauser, a sociologist, takes the position that value judgments have no place in either social science research or social science instruction. Hauser is concerned about the potpourri of research results and normative judgments that often occur in textbooks and courses of study. If value judgments are to be included in the curriculum, they should appear in courses labelled ethics, religion, civics. "By keeping such value judgments out of the social sciences, or minimizing their inclusion, not only is the integrity of social science maintained, but the value judgments themsleves are not given a false aura of validity by association with, or as presumed derivations of, 'science.'"[16]

Hauser's arguments appear to be valid, yet separating value judgments from social science content creates other difficulties. How can adults be expected to relate social science knowledge to value issues if, as students, they do not have practice in this task? Indeed, separating the two implies that it is intellectually unsound to relate social science knowledge to value issues.[17]

But those who argue that values should be an integral part of social studies instruction do not agree on an approach to this task. To be specific, a teacher can handle an issue involving values in at least two different ways. Let us assume that fredom of speech in the United States is under discussion. If a student suggests that freedom of speech should have no limits, the teacher may say either: "Your answer is right (or wrong) because..." or "Can you support your answer with good reasons?" In the first case the teacher is attempting to convince the student of the wisdom of someone else's answer to the issue. The teacher in the second instance is challenging the student to develop his own answer to the issue.

The first approach is sometimes referred to as "teaching values" while the second one is labelled "teaching about values." This way of making the distinction, however, does not specify carefully how the approaches differ. A more precise pair of terms is adjustment and self-development. To evaluate a youngster's answer as right (or wrong) is to identify, implicity or explicitly, a standard against which the answer is being judged; the youngster must "adjust" his answer to that standard so that his answer is "right." The standard may represent local community norms, middle class values, the preferences of his teachers, etc. In all cases the task of the student is to "adjust" or "adapt" his value orientation to that of a reference group.[18]

To request that a youngster support his answer with reasons is to say that he is to "develop" his own position. In addition it is implied that some positions are more valid than others; if all positions are seen to be equally wise, there is no need to request supporting reasons. But validity is not a question of whether the answer is consistent with a standard so much as it is a question of whether the reasoning leading to the answer is rational.[19]

Figure II presents a typology of the various approaches to values education that are reflected in curricula. For each approach, there is literature both for and against, both analytic and rhetorical; see Phi Delta Kappan, Summer 1976. Kohlberg's views, since they are rooted in an epistemology and particular psychological theory, have been the subject of careful critical analysis, e.g., Aaron, School Review, Winter, 1977.

Figure II

OVERVIEW OF TYPOLOGY OF VALUES EDUCATION APPROACHES

APPROACHES	PURPOSE	METHODS	MATERIALS	DEVELOPERS
Inculcation	-to install or internalize certain values in students -to change the values of students so they more nearly reflect certain desired values	modeling, positive and negative reinforcement, mocking, nagging, manipulating alternatives, providing incomplete or biased data, games and simulations, role playing, discovery learning	Human Value Series Teaching Moral Values through Behavior Modification	Blanchette et al. (1970) Sayre (1972)
Moral Development	-to help students develop complex moral reasoning patterns based on a higher set of values -to urge students to discuss the reasons for their value choices and positions, not merely to share with others, but to foster change in the states of reasoning of students	moral dilemma episodes, with small group discussion being relatively structured and argumentative	First Things: Values "Teaching Strategies for Moral Dilemmas"	Kohlberg and Selman (1970) Galbraith and Jones (1974)
Analysis	-to help students use logical thinking and scientific investigation to decide value issues and questions. -to help students use rational, analytical processes in interrelating and conceptualizing their values	structured rational discussion that demands the application of reasons as well as evidence, testing principles, analyzing analogous cases, debate, and research	Public Issues Series Analysis of Public Issues Program Values Education (41st NCSS Yearbook) People, Places, Decision Series	Oliver and Newmann (1967-72) Shaver and Larkins (1973) Metcalf (1971) Berlak and Tomlinson (1973-1977)

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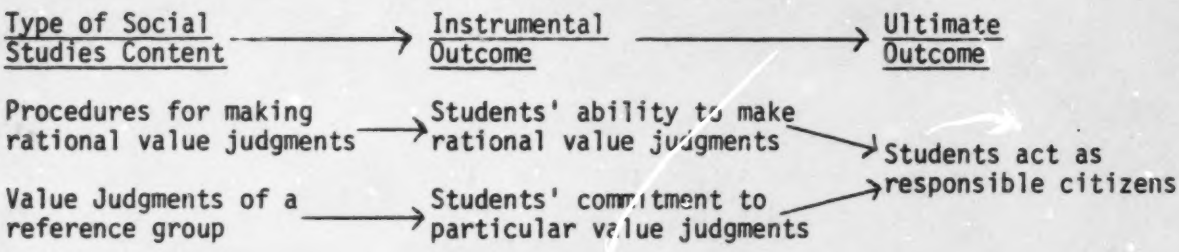
APPROACHES	PURPOSE	METHODS	MATERIALS	DEVELOPERS
Clarification	-to help students become aware of and identify their own values and those of others -to help students communicate openly and honestly with others about their values -to help students use both rational thinking and emotional awareness to examine their personal feelings, values, and behavior patterns	role-playing games, simulations, contrived or real value-laden situations, in-depth self-analysis exercises, sensitivity activities, out-of-class activities, small group discussion	Decisions and Outcomes Values and Teaching Values Clarification Values in Action Scholastic Contact Series A Probe into Values	Gelatt et al. (1973) Raths et al. (1966) Simon et al. (1972) Shaftel and Shaftel (1970) Goodykoontz (1968-74) Church (1973)
Action Learning	-those purposes listed for analysis and clarification -to provide students with opportunities for personal and social action based on their values -to encourage students to view themselves as personal-social interactive beings, not fully autonomous, but members of a community or social system	the methods listed for analysis and clarification as well as action projects within the school and community and skill practice in group organizing and interpresonal relations	Finding Community Social Action CECH	Jones (1971) Newmann (1972) Citizenship Education Clearinghouse, Ochoa and Johnson (under development)

Figure III summarizes the relationships between value judgments and citizenship education for those who believe that the study of values should be a central concern of social studies instruction. As in the case of Figure I, the arrows in Figure III refer to temporal sequence. Type of content (column one) leads to instrumental outcomes (column two) which result in ultimate outcomes (column three). Both approaches have responsible citizenship as the ultimate outcome.

Figure III

Value Judgments and
Citizenship Education


Type of Social Studies Content
Instrumental Outcome
Ultimate Outcome
Procedures for making rational value judgments
Students' ability to make rational value judgments
Value Judgments of a reference group
Students' commitment to particular value judgments
Students act as responsible citizens

Educators who emphasize the place of value judgments in social studies education may encounter definitional problems. Those who stress the making of rational value judgments often do not provide a definition of the term rational. Since this term is of central importance, it must be carefully defined. Educators who emphasize the product, particular value judgments, need to identify precisely which value commitments are to be taught.

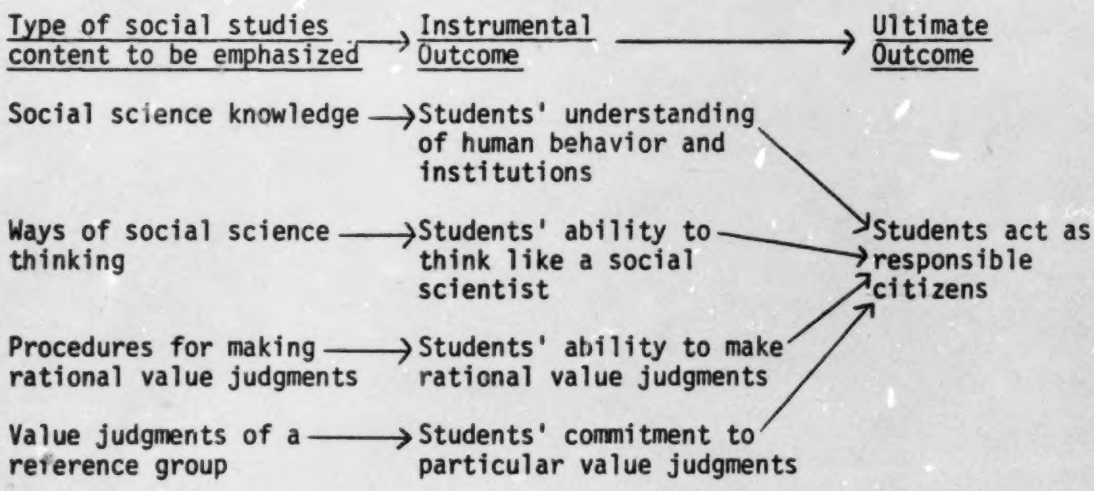
In all of the Figures, distinctions between types of content may be seen as artificial. For instance, a student cannot think like a social scientist without employing social science knowledge. Thinking like a social scientist also entails accepting the value commitments of a reference group, social science scholars. Scholarly values include objectivity, pursuit of truth, freedom of thought, and so on. Similarly, a student brings his own values, obtained from a variety of reference groups, to any situation where he tries to make a "rational"

value judgment. No doubt it is impossible to organize a social studies course using only one of the four types of content.

But it is possible to base a course primarily on one of four types of content. Other types of content may be included, but their use is determined by the type of content that is dominant. That is, in a course where major emphasis is on the teaching of particular value commitments, only social science knowledge that supports these commitments is introduced. By the same token value judgments are excluded from a social science inquiry course because the emphasis is on understanding, not judging, human behavior and institutions. However, such a course implicitly teaches scholarly values.

Figure IV

Alternative Social Studies Positions


Type of social studies content to be emphasized
Instrumental Outcome
Ultimate Outcome
Social science knowledge
Students' understanding of human behavior and institutions
Ways of social science thinking
Students' ability to think like a social scientist
Students act as responsible citizens
Procedures for making rational value judgments
Students' ability to make rational value judgments
Value judgments of a reference group
Students' commitment to particular value judgments

Figures I and III can be combined to create a sceme for categorizing alternative social studies positions. The result, Figure IV, indicates that each of the four positions has the same ultimate goal: responsible citizenship. The instrumental outcomes are so different that one cannot help but believe that they are a reflection of varying conceptions of responsible citizenship. Indeed, the term citizenship education has been defined at one time or another as being: consumer education, commitment to the American Creed, personal adjustment, clari-

fication of positions on public issues, mastery of basic facts in American History, or some other end.[20]

It seems highly unlikely that any one of the interpretations of responsible citizenship will ever be accepted by all social studies educators. In the absence of such consensus, the question becomes how one decides which ultimate outcome ought to be preferred. Only after such a determination is made can one hope to judge which of the instrumental outcomes is most appropriate. An approach to determining the desirability of conceptions of citizenship education is presented later in this paper.

Contributions of the Scheme One major contribution of the scheme presented in Figure IV is that it revises a basic distinction made by many social studies educators. This distinction is between social studies as the developer of good citizens in contrast to social studies as essentially the same as the social sciences. We should, as Berelson notes, all agree that citizenship education is the primary end of social studies instruction. The question is not, therefore, citizenship education versus the social sciences. The issue is to find a wise concept of citizenship education and to discover how that concept may be efficiently attained.

A second contribution of the scheme is that it provides a map of several logically possible alternatives. For the map to be of use, however, a person must be able to place actual curriculum proposals in the scheme. In addition, the scheme should aid one's attempt to compare and contrast various curriculum proposals.

FOOTNOTES

[1] Examples of such statements of position are: Shirley Engle, "Decision Making: The Heart of Social Studies Instruction," *Social Education*, XXIV (November, 1960), 301-04, 306; Maurice P. Hunt and Lawrence E. Metcalf, *Teaching High School Social Studies*, (New York: Harper & Row, 1955); Philip Hauser, "Social Science Research and the Curriculum: *North Central Association Quarterly, 33* (January, 1959), 231-41; Harry S. Broudy, B. Othanel Smith, Joe R. Burnett, *Democracy and Excellence in American Secondary Education* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1964); Earl S. Johnson, "The Social Studies Versus the Social Sciences," *The School Review, 71* (Winter, 1963), 389-403.

[2] Exceptions do exist. An example of a text that does involve students in the evaluation of data is: Allan O. Kownslar and Donald B. Frizzle, *Discovering American History* (Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1967).

[3] Shirley Engle, "Objectives of the Social Studies," *Current Research in Social Studies*, Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, 40 (March, 1964), 1-12; Dale L. Brubaker, *Alternative Directions for the Social Studies* (Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1967).

[4] Bernard Berelson, "Introduction," *The Social Studies and the Social Sciences*, Sponsored by the American Council of Learned Societies and the National Council for the Social Studies (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1962), 6-7.

[5] Jerome Bruner, *The Process of Education* (New Yrok: Vintage Books, 1960), 14.

[6] "Introduction," *The Social Studies and the Social Sciences, 4.*

[7] Berleson states that the scholars contributing to his volume believe that high school students should study "basic understandings, illustrated by their applications to past and present societies" (p.7); his use of the term understandings indicates he equates the study of conclusions with the process of understanding. On the other hand Bruner believes that understanding results only when one engages in inquiry: "What a scientist does at his desk or his laboratory, what a literary critic coes in reading a poem, is of the same order as what anybody else does when he is engaged in like activities--if he is to achieve understanding." (p.14).

[8] Robert Redfield, "The Social Uses of Social Science." Quoted by Dale L. Brubaker, *Alternative Directions for the Social Studies,*

[9] Pendelton Herring, "The Objectives and Methods of the Social Sciences - The Essential Functions of Research," *New Viewpoints in the Social Sciences,* Twenty-eighth Yearbook of the National Council for the Social Studies (Washington, D. C.: The Council, 1958), 2.

[10]Charles A. Beard, *The Nature of the Social Sciences*, Part VII of the Report on the Commission on the Social Studies, Chariman A. C. Krey (19 vols; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934), 3.

[11]Robin Williams, *Social Action and the Social Scientist*, Proceedings of the 5th Annual Intergroup Relations Conference, University of Houston, April 18, 1964, Prepared by the Public Affairs Research Center (University of Houston, Occasional Paper #2), 8.

[12]For example, Jerome Bruner, although he never uses the term citizenship, asserts that subject matter is not an end in itself: "It is only in a trivial sense that one gives a course to 'get something across,' merely to impart information . . . .Unless the learner also masters himself, disciplines his taste, deepens his view of the world, the 'something' that is got across is hardly worth the effort of transmission." *Toward a Theory of Instruction* (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1966), 73. The goals proposed by Bruner may be his way of defining responsible citizenship.

[13]Engle, "Decision Making,: *Social Education*, XXIV, 301-04, 306.

[14]Engle defines interpretation of data as "deciding what a group of descriptive data means, how these data may be summarized or generalized, what principles they suggest." "Decision Making," *Social Education*, XXIV, 301-04, 306.

[15]Engle, "Decision Making," *Social Education*, XXIV, 303-04.

[16]Philip Hauser, "Social Science Research and the Curriculum." Reprinted in James Shaver and Harold Berlak, *Democracy, Pluralism, and the Social Studies* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968), 266-67.

[17]James Shaver and Harold Berlak, "The Social Sciences and the Curriculum," *Democracy, Pluralism, and the Social Studies*, 259.

[18]The term reference group includes any grouping whose values could provide a standard for a youngster, i.e., his peer group, a social class, a community, the teachers in his school, the friends of his parents.

[19]Rational is defined by the Harvard Project (as published by American Education Publications) in the following way: "Opinion issues can be resolved through rational discourse. There are objective standards for judging the rationality and validity of positions and thereby showing that some opinions are better than others...Briefly, a position or opinion that is supported by reliable evidence, that is consistent, that takes into account analogous situations, and that offers useful definitions of vague terms is more valid than a position that is unsupported by evidence, inconsistent, insensitive to analogies, and uses ambiguous language." *Cases and Controversy; Guide to Teaching the Public Issues Series* (Middleton, Connecticut: American Education Publications, 1967), 7.

[20]Some readers may restrict citizenship education to one of these definitions. The author, however, uses the term to encompass any outcome designed to prepare individuals for a role in a free society.